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This document is the sixth in a series of six annotated bibliographies relevant to early childhood education. Its general subject is personality, and it includes three subdivisions: basic temperamental and motivational traits, attitude, and ego functioning. Each of the 15 abstracts included has been classified by general and specific subject, by focus of study, and alphabetically by author. Focus of study categories are normative, environmental, measurement and techniques, intervention, pathology, physiology, animals, and general. The general subjects of other bibliographies in the series are language, education, cognition, physical, and social aspects of early childhood education. (DO)

6

EARLY CHILDHOOD

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHIES SERIES

PERSONALITY

ERIC CLEARINGHOUSE ON EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION
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This bibliography is Number 6 in a series of six. The general subject is Personality, and it is divided into the following specific subjects:

1. Basic Temperamental and Motivational Traits
2. Attitude
3. Ego Functioning

The five other bibliographies contain the following general subjects:

1. Physical
2. Language
3. Education
4. Cognition
5. Social

Every abstract in this series has been coded at four levels; namely, general subject, specific subject, focus of study, and alphabetical by author. In all six bibliographies, the categories under focus of study have been coded as follows:

1. Normative
2. Environmental
3. Measurement and Techniques
4. Intervention
5. Pathology
6. Physiology, Etc.
7. Animals
8. General

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6.1
BASIC TEMPERAMENTAL AND MOTIVATIONAL TRAITS

6.1.1 NORMATIVE

6.1.1.1 Moore, S.G. Displaced aggression in young children. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1962, 68, 2, 200-204.

Purpose: To study the displacement of aggression when children are exposed to a mildly frustrating card game.
Subjects: 68 boys, ages 4 years, 7 months to 6 years, 1 month; 40 girls, ages 4 years, 11 months, to 6 years, 2 months. Children attended the preschool laboratory of Iowa Child Welfare Research Status or a public school kindergarten. No information about sociometric status was given.
Method: Frustration task--each subject played a game of cards for chips. The object was to win enough chips to earn a toy. There were two kinds of cards: five plain cards and five cards with pictures of a child of the same sex as subject. Some subjects lost to the figure cards and won from the plain cards or vice versa. Controlled for age and sex, each subject was randomly assigned to one of three groups at high frustration--lost to the figure cards and won from the plain cards (started with seven chips and ended up with two chips); (b) low frustration--started with two chips and ended up with two chips (lost to figure cards and won from plain cards); (c) control--started with two chips, ended up with two chips, but lost to the plain card and won from the figure card. Aggression task--consisted of a cork gun shooting game in which subject chose which of two figures to shoot at in three successive pairs. In each pair one figure was more like the figure on the cards than the other. Subject was also allowed to take as many bonus shots as he liked at a figure exactly like the card playing figure.
Predictions: (1) The subjects who lost to the figure card would be more likely to prefer physically similar figures as targets in the aggressive task than would subjects who won from the figure card. (2) Those subjects who experienced heavy losses to the figure card would be more likely to prefer physically similar figures as targets than would subjects who experienced light losses. (3) For the bonus shots, subjects who lost more to the figure cards would shoot the most; those who experienced light losses would shoot more than those who won from the figure cards.
Results: The predictions were not supported by the data. There were no significant differences.

6.1.1.2 Tyler, F., and Whisenhunt, J.W. Motivational changes during preschool attendance. Child Development, 1962, 33, 427-442.

Purpose: To study changes in motivational characteristics of preschool children that accompany attendance in a nursery school.
Method: 34 children enrolled in a preschool on a university campus. Sample one: 11 boys and 7 girls enrolled in nursery school during the 1955-56 school year, average age was 3:10 at the beginning of school. Sample two: 9 boys and 7 girls enrolled in the nursery school during the 1957-58 year; average age was 3:3 in September 1957. Both groups had the same preschool teacher, but during the first year she had only one assistant and during the second year she had two assistants. In both cases the staff worked to provide a varied set of activities for the subjects that let them follow their own interests with a minimum of restrictions and structure. All children were observed during the first three months of the school year, with each subject being observed approximately 100 minutes a month, evenly divided between two observers. The mean observation time for sample one subjects was 261 minutes; and for sample two, subject's mean observation time was 306 minutes. Running record observations were made in a systematic predetermined manner with no attempts to attend selectively to specific types of behavior. All ratings of behavior were made according to a scoring manual that was derived from a list of needs reported by Rotter (1954, Social Learning and Clinical Psychology). They are defined as: (1) Recognition-Status (RS)--calling attention to attributes, behavior, achievement, attention-getting behavior, imitating socially approved behavior. (2) Love and Affection (L&F)--cooperative play, sharing, helping, seeking affection, sympathetic behavior. (3) Dominance (D)--commanding others, making demands, controlling others' activity, aggression. (4) Protection-Dependency (P-D)--seeking help or information, intervention of others to prevent frustration. (5) Independence (Ind)--individualized activity, self-care. All protocols were independently rated by two raters with the child's score being the sum of both sets of ratings, so there are twice as many ratings as behavior units. Reliability coefficients for sample one ranged from .86 to .95 with a mean of .89, and sample two had a mean of .95 with a range of .80 to .96.
Findings: (1) For R-S, L&A and D motives the two samples do not differ significantly during any of the three observation periods nor can any "noteworthy trends" be detected from their scores. They are alike when school begins and 3 months later. (2) During the first month of observation, sample one has a significantly greater proportion of independence needs ($p < .05$), but this difference between the samples vanishes by the second month. (3) "In the P-D category, the two sample means are not significantly different for the first month, but they are for the second ($p < .05$) and third months ($p < .01$) and for all three periods, with the sample two subjects yielding greater proportion scores." Moreover, sample two subjects show a significant ($p < .01$) overall increase in proportion of P-D behavior. (4)

Analyzing the material separately for each sex, the girls are relatively similar on these need characteristics and relatively stable over time. (5) On D both old and young boys have the same proportion of this behavior during the first month; but during the second month the older boys increase in D "while the younger boys show an almost equivalent decrease in these behaviors. Thus, the older and younger boys are significantly different ($p<.05$) during the second month and almost significantly different ($p<.10$) during the third month, as D behavior remains stable during the last two months. (6) On R-S behavior, "the younger boys show significantly less than the older boys during the first month ($p<.05$), but then show a significant increase ($p<.05$) in proportion of R-S behavior during the second month while the older boys decrease significantly ($p<.01$) on R-S during the second month. By the end of the second month, the younger boys have surpassed the older boys on R-S, but the differences are no longer significant; the behavior remains stable during the third month. Moreover, the change in D need is about equal and opposite to the change in R-S behavior for both groups of boys. (7) During the first and third months the younger boys have a significantly higher proportion of L&A behavior ($p<.01$).

Conclusions: (1) Differing optimal levels of independence for each preschool may account for the lack of a significant change in independence behaviors in each sample and for the contradictory findings of other studies that say independence is increased with preschool attendence (Joel, 1939) and that dependence is decreased with preschool attendance (Mallay, 1935). (2) The equal and opposite changes in older and younger boys on Dom and R-S may reflect an increase in control seeking by older boys who then decrease their R-S as they are successful in the former and a decrease in Dom by the younger boys who turn to other areas, R-S, for need satisfactions. Considering that the younger boys had significantly more L&A behavior also, it is possible that with age, socialization pressures reduce the frequency of their love and affectional demonstrations and increase their Dom behavior. (3) There is no evidence that preschool attendance increases conformity, but instead it is thought that it provides restrictions against the group becoming too homogeneous or diversified.

6.1.3 MEASUREMENT AND TECHNIQUES

6.1.3.1 Escalona, S. Some determinants of individual differences--the concept of concrete experience. Transactions of the New York Academy of Sciences, 1965, 27, 802-816.

Purpose: The purpose of this paper is to evaluate past research on individual differences--all of which has only

described individual differences--and to suggest a new conceptual framework for studying individual differences.

Criticisms: Research on individual differences has "not yielded consistent relationships between different patterns of functioning within the normal range and their specific determinants. Nor has it yielded consistent and specific antecedent-consequent relationships between specific kinds of malignant experience and specific varieties of psychopathology." These criticisms are based on factual grounds derived from a survey of the literature. Thus, while we know that maternal deprivation is harmful, we cannot account for the fact that such an environment may produce neurotics, psychopaths and other deviants and on occasion, normal persons.

New Ideas: Current research on individual differences usually uses a model that views personality and behavior as the result of two inputs: environment and constitution of the individual. Escalona suggests another model: environment and organismic or constitutional factors combine to produce the intervening variable "patterns of concrete experience" which in turn determines personality and behavior. This model more accurately represents behavior at any moment as the resultant of environmental and constitutional factors that repeatedly combine to produce a patterned behavioral structure known as personality. An example of "concrete experience" is the similar mothering experience of autistic children which is thought to be directly related to their condition although they may differ from each other biologically and in other environmental experiences.

Research Suggestions: In future research the author suggests that investigators look at the middle level of her model: "concrete experience" which is relevant to all areas of functioning and does have a direct relationship with developmental changes in each area of functioning. According to the top level of her model, environment and constitution are traditionally studied and used to predict development, whereas the author contends they are not directly related to development but they influence development through the intervening variable of concrete experience. The importance of this variable is emphasized by the fact "that the same patterns of concrete experience can come about as the result of very different determinants" (environmental and constitutional) and that "similar events and conditions may produce, nevertheless, widely different patterns of concrete experience and personality. Thus, by studying the determinants directly without considering the pattern of concrete experience, researchers have failed to consider a crucial step in personality development. To study personality according to this model there will be a need for data from four different levels using instruments still to be devised: (1) "instruments to measure the course of development and developmental outcome," (2) "systematic tools for the periodic assessment of selected aspects of concrete experience." (3) "the assessment of at least some of the organismic characteristics of the child," and (4) "instruments with which to describe the actual properties of the environment."

6.1.5 PATHOLOGY

6.1.5.1 Schrager, J., Harrison, S., McDermott, J., Wilson, P., and Lindy, J. The hyperkinetic child, an overview of the issues. Will appear in Journal of Child Psychiatry (preprint, September, 1966).

Purpose: To review the literature on this topic and come to some conclusion about a definition for the term hyperkinetic, and source of the disorder and recommended treatment.
Criticisms: There is little agreement on what "hyperkinetic" means, its cause, and how and where it should be treated.
New Ideas: (1) Hyperkinetic children are marked by short attention span, distractibility, impulsivity, lack of inhibition and control, and anxiety. (2) Hyperkinesia is a condition resulting from the interaction of brain and behavior, although the balance between the two will vary from case to case. (3) Early identification and intervention in the care of hyperkinetic children is advised. The school is recommended as the best place for the operation of remedial programs, since through it the greatest number of such children will be apprehended and the normal school program--which aggravates the hyperkinetic child's problem and yet occupies a large part of his day--can be adjusted to meet the child's needs so his education continues at a rate similar to his peers.
Research Suggested: Programs in schools which separate hyperkinetic children and give them a specially prepared curriculum in an understanding and sympathetic environment. Such programs should be carefully researched and before-and-after studies conducted. A few special problems do exist, but the author questions the research being done on them.

6.1.8 GENERAL

6.1.8.1 Kagan, J., and Henker, B. Developmental Psychology, Annual Review of Psychology, 1966, 17, 1-50.

Animal Behavior: (1) Imprinting: "Length of the sensitive period for inital imprinting is no longer considered invariant." A variety of central nervous system stimulants and not muscular coordination seems to initiate the critical period, and it can be accelerated and extended by early visual enrichment (in chicks) and by "extra stimulation such as rubbing, rocking, or a flashing light" in dogs. Movement, brilliantly colored static objects, sound, and color increase the imprinting status of an object for chicks, whereas form is irrelevant. In general, one may consider imprinting phenomena as perceptual preferences which act as general releasers for the developing

sensory system, thus supporting "Lorenz's stress on unlearned selective stimulus releasers." Another view of imprinting is the "law of effort," which states "that the strength of imprinting is proportional to the effort expended by the subject during training." This has been supported by empirical research. This view of imprinting is consonant with explanations based on arousal and subsequent differential attention: any internal or external process that serves to maximize attention will facilitate attachment. Because there may be a daily cycle for imprinting, greater time controls are needed for research in this area. "If the primacy principle holds, early enrichment may interfere with imprinting but facilitate later following." Maturational age delimits the critical period only indirectly and termination of it is yet to be explained, although it can be experimentally controlled. Since a stimulus can be approached or avoided, depending upon the test time and presentation method, and since transfer of attachment has been experimentally controlled, imprinting can probably not be viewed as a unitary, irreversible process. (2) Prenatal Influences: There is a measurable effect in the infant of stress to the mother-fetus in the consensus of studies. Prenatal doses of epinephrine or norepinephrine are associated with less active infants in an open field and less learning of a maze task. (3) The Consequences of Early Handling and Stress: Findings are contradictory, with some saying less defecation and greater activity are the products of varied forms of infant stimulation and others finding that results depend upon strain of animal used and time of stress relative to critical periods and nature of task used in test. (4) Effects of Social Interaction: Preweaning stimulation results in more active, social and curious rats after weaning with evidence that "the month following weaning may be a critical period for social interaction in rodents." It was also found that infant stress in humans facilitates physical growth. (5) Sensory Deprivation and Enrichment: Postweaning deprivation and enrichment have a pervasive and permanent effect according to the latest studies. Environmental complexity produces greater total cortical weight at puberty and increased enzyme activity. (6) Effect of Variations in Social Rearing Conditions: Evidence continues to support the belief that early experience does have lasting and significant influence. Monkeys maternally deprived at birth and placed in partial social isolation during early years show only a slight decline in self-sucking or nonnutritive sucking with age, whereas normally raised monkeys virtually abandon these activities with age. Self-clutching stays longer in mother-deprived monkeys, and chewing does not increase as it does in mother-reared monkeys. At age 3 normals increase sharply in outer-directed aggressive responses, whereas isolates show increased self-directed aggression. As mothers, the isolated monkeys are violent, abusive, and neglectful of their first child; but more normal mothers,

toward their second child. Infant experience (raised by monkeys or humans) influences later choice of behavior but is reversible, so monkeys raised by humans away from monkeys prefer humans, whereas monkeys raised in isolation spend less time with humans or monkeys but prefer monkeys. Moreover, monkeys raised by monkeys and then humans and then returned to monkeys prefer monkeys. Maternally deprived monkeys cower and retreat in problem situations. Maternally deprived sheep begin to avoid the visual cliff earlier than animals raised with mothers (observed with twins). Chicks raised in pairs eat more than socially separated chicks, and physical contact at an early age seems to enhance the later sexual behavior of roosters. Rats raised together show more dominant and gregarious behavior. Myocardial infarction in chicks seems to come from increased heterosexual interaction. Feral adult monkeys show more aggression towards realistic stimuli than laboratory animals reared with or without mother or in the dark.

Humans: Ages 2 to 6: (1) Cognition and Learning: Perception: Preschool children prefer to scan in a vertical rather than horizontal dimension and differentiate with greater accuracy in the vertical dimension; moreover, 4-year-olds tend to focus on the bottom of a geometric form, and 5- and 6-year-olds scan from top to bottom (this last result is found in American and Teheran). By age 6, children start naming objects that are spatially adjacent, whereas formerly this was not so. More girls than boys start naming objects from the left, possibly showing greater reading readiness. Consistent selection of relative size is easier to learn than absolute size. Children prefer to select by color than form and by form than orientation. Eye movement increases as a child selects the right answer in a discrimination problem, "showing he is checking stimulus and standard to make sure he is correct." (2) Language: Syntactical development is studied in depth in the monograph edited by Bellugi and Brown. Children have a small number of function words (e.g., go, eat, know) which are paired with other words to get "schools or sentences." Children omit words that carry little information (e.g., or, as, because). By age 3 children are thought to have all the basic structures of adult grammar, and development now involves the growth of transformations. (3) The Role of Language in Learning: The role of language mediators in generalization is lessened by competing associations and less meaningful associations between two units. "Implicit or explicit labeling facilitates cross-modal transfer." (4) Reinforcement Parameters: "Novelty stimulus can act as a temporary reinforcement that children will work to reproduce and attend to for long durations; this is preferred over familiar objects and this desire grows with age and intelligence." Response speed is faster to novel than familiar objects, and responses are less likely to change if the stimulus materials are changing. Initially, both boys and girls prefer to look at a smiling face to a

neutral or frowning face, but boys then shift to the frown and girls remain addicted to the smiling face. (5) Delayed Reinforcement: The older the child the less impairment is associated with delay; but if events during the delay are unexpected, they impair performance less than if the delay permits the child's interest to wane; detrimental effects of delay were found in studies of children under 8. (6) Effect of Amount of Training: "Overtraining seems to have minimal facilitation on simple or especially difficult problems and maximal facilitation on problems of moderate difficulty. The effect of extra experience is to strengthen structures that already have some substance." With 3- and 4-year-olds, extra training leads to highly differentiated responses that blocks generalization, whereas with 5- and 6-year-olds, the child generates a symbolic mediator to facilitate transfer. (7) Effect of Nonreward: "Task failure or difficult problems lead to faster responding in young children, perhaps because these events increase task involvement." Prevented from completing a coding task, boys' performance decreased more than girls'. (8) Response Hierarchies in Learning and Performance Situations: In two-choice problems, 2- and 3-year-olds "perseverated in their choices," 4- and 5-year-olds alternated, and 6- and 7-year-olds "tried to optimize their performance and outguess the examiner." (9) Cognition and Piaget: Piaget continues to believe that "classification operations neither arise directly from language nor require language as a central explanatory factor in their development," with data from children's answers to classification and seriation problems as evidence. Supporting his statements about the necessity of a rich language repertoire to show conservation is the fact that deaf children by age 8 are generally retarded in showing conservation of weight and are also retarded in language. Relating to Piaget's work on animism is the finding that "ascription of life to inanimate objects decreases during the ages of 4 to 10 with preschool children viewing death as temporary and reversible." (10) Individual Differences in Conceptual and Perceptual Strategies: With age, children become more analytic and reflective rather than impulsive. Personality Processes: (1) Imitation: Peer models who are rewarded are more likely to be imitated particularly if they and the imitator are of the same sex. (2) Identification and Sex-Role Identity: The degree to which "a child adopts sex-role standards influences behavior continuities through adulthood, patterns of sexual behavior and academic performance." (3) Motives and Related Behavior: "Preschool children who give nurturance and are dependent tend to be more popular, and those who interact most are likely to be remembered on a sociometric test." Boys from large congested families have the highest contact with their female nursery school teachers, probably due to deprivation at home. Children rated as high-dependent by their teachers are less interested in risk taking at age three; 3-year-olds are also more likely to withdraw and become dependent after

failure than 4-year-olds. (4) Guilt and Moral Development: It is suggested that self-criticism is learned to reduce anxiety. "Guilt is learned as a result of the child issuing an expiation response while anxiety is being reduced in the context of a positive parental reaction to the child. Experiments reveal than when a label is uttered by an adult after the termination of a punishment, it is learned with greater facility than if it is applied at the onset of punishment." Punishing an act at its initiation leads to stronger suppression than punishment given at the completion of the act. (5) Stabilities and Basic Dimensions: In a study seeking to discern fundamental response dispositions, it was found that the "active-passive dimension in interpersonal behavior becomes more relevant with time, a friendly-hostile dimension decreases in importance and introversion-extroversion is the most stable behavioral dimension." There is evidence that the "extroversive-hostile 3-year-old becomes poised at 5 while the introversive-friendly 3-year-old becomes insecure at school-age." (6) Parental Practices and Child Behavior: Cross-cultural research supports the statement that "beliefs derive from practices," thus questioning the traditional statement that "parental practices derive from beliefs."

6.2
ATTITUDE

6.2.1 NORMATIVE

6.2.1.1 Abel, H., and Sahinkaya, R. Emergence of sex and race friendship preferences. Child Development, 1962, 33, 939-943.

Problem: "Do children below kindergarten age exhibit a preference for persons of their own sex and/or race? Which factor, sex or race, emerges earlier? Are the same tendencies displayed by boys and girls?"
Subjects: The total group consisted of 48 children attending the University of Nebraska Nursery school. The 4-year-olds (aged 3.5 to 4.5) included seven boys and nine girls; the 5-year-olds (aged 4.5 to 5.5) included 13 boys and 19 girls. The children were Caucasian and "in all but a few cases, were from upper-middle class backgrounds as evidenced by home ownership, nonworking mothers, and fathers engaged in professions or high level occupations. The mean IQ of the sample on the Revised Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale was 124.4."
Method: Each child saw 32 pictures (two series of 16 pictures). The first series (sex-choice series) consisted of pictures of children of different sex but the same race (i.e., a white girl and a white boy were paired or a Negro girl and a Negro boy were paired). The subject was asked to select the one he would like as his friend from the pair presented. On the second series (race-choice series), each subject was presented with pictures of children of the same sex but different race (i.e., a white girl and a Negro girl were paired or a white boy and a Negro boy were paired) and, again, was asked to state his preference. Biases of position and fatigue were controlled for.
Results: (1) Four-year-olds do not choose their own race significantly more often. (2) Four-year-olds make statistically significant same sex choices (.05). (3) Five-year-olds choose their own race significantly more often (.05). (4) Five-year-olds make statistically significant same sex choices (.01). (5) Boys choose their own race significantly more often (.01). (6) Girls show no race preference. (7) Boys choose their own sex significantly more often (.05). (8) Girls choose their own sex significantly more often (.01).
Conclusions: "Children below kindergarten age exhibit preferences for both their own sex and race. However, preference for members of the same sex is evidenced among the 4-year-olds, whereas choice of the white race is displayed only in the 5-year-old group. Clearly, preferences based on sex emerge earlier than those based on race. In sex choices, boys and

girls tend to choose members of the same sex; but in race choices only the boys tend to prefer the white race."

6.2.1.2 Ames, L.B. Children's stories. Genetic Psychology Monographs, 1966, 73, 337-396.

Purpose: To discover what topics and themes interest the preschool child; what types of characters are most salient; how he views his parents and the world and if the stories are instrumental in any way. These stories are compared with the results of an earlier study done in the same schools (Pitcher and Prelinger, Children Tell Stories, 1963, International University Press, page 256).
Subjects: 270 preschool children; 135 girls and 135 boys evenly distributed in age; groups of 2, 3, 3 1/2, 4, 4 1/2, and 5 years. Two- through 4-year-olds are all of superior intelligence and not all parents are professionals.
Procedure: Each subject was accosted in his nursery or kindergarten classroom by his teacher and the author, taken aside, and asked to tell a story which the author recorded. Shy children were given a minimum of prompting, so it is assumed the story reflects subject's choice.
Design: Stories were analyzed by sex and age groups for themes and content. Results are given in percentages; no significance tests were done. By Age Groups: (1) Two-year-olds lack sufficient language for this research and are also most uncooperative. With skill and patience, about 50 per cent of the 2-year-olds did tell a story. As at every age for each sex, themes of violence predominate, with the boys giving more of these stories than girls. Harm to people and accidents are the most frequent events in both sexes, with girls mentioning more people being spanked and boys mentioning more things falling down and being broken. Friendly activities are the second most common theme and frequently occur in the same story with violence. Other common themes for girls are sleep, sibling rivalry and crying; for boys, they are sibling rivalry and crying, with the boys behind the girls on each of these last two ideas. Girls portray their mother as friendly, caring, and providing for them, whereas boys see mothers mainly as companions. All girls see fathers as friendly and caring for them, but only 2/3 of the boys view their fathers similarly. Mothers, girls, and babies are the leading characters in girls' stories; boys and babies are the main people in boys' stories. All children protect themselves by having bad things happen to siblings, those of the opposite sex, and animals or by having things suddenly improve or end in death. Girls tell stories that change subject rapidly, occur at home, and are reality-oriented. Stories are the shortest of any ages and have much eating and biting. Boys' stories are the shortest of all tested, with little action and many things breaking or eating each other. (2) Three-year-old boys tell stories of violence (84%) that most frequently involve accidents

of falling down or breaking things (80%), whereas the girls' stories of violence (68%) most frequently involve harm to people (44%) and accidents of falling (40%). Girls also tell the most stories with friendly themes (68%). Food and eating are popular themes with both sexes (36%, boys; 48%, girls). Most girls see mother as friendly and protecting, but 25% see her as deserting; boys' views are evenly divided between companioning and protecting. Girls and boys view their fathers exactly as they see their mothers except both also see him as sympathizing. Each sex has itself as the leading character most frequently. Subjects protect themselves by having bad things most frequently happen to animals; or death, illness, and accidents are corrected. In general girls' stories contain several events, each happening in succession without any order or hierarchy of importance and all stories occuring close to home and realistic in content. Boys' stories are shorter, further from home, and contain a balance of realism and fantasy. (3) Three-and-one-half year old boys tell the most violent stories of all subjects with harm to object and aggression most frequent; falling down and breaking things is the most prevalent accident. Girls' stories center on harm to animals, aggression, and accidents (falling down). Most girls see mothers as providing for them, and half the boys and some girls see mothers as punishing or "as a victim." Girls see fathers as caring and protecting, whereas most boys see them as "passive or as victims." Leading characters in girls' stories are girls and mothers; in boys' stories, boys and some adult are the main characters. Girls protect themselves by having bad things occur to animals (40%); boys protect themselves by having harm occur to objects (52%), or death and illness are corrected (28%). Girls' stories center on tales about animals or people who get into difficulty and then manage to get out of it; stories are evenly divided between fantasy and realism, occur away from the house, and are in general more varied than boys' stories. Boys tell mainly violent tales with fantasy predominating and the scene set in an unknown and very distant spot, further away from home than the girls' stories are. (4) Four-year-old shyer boys and girls tell an equal amount of violent stories (76%) with accidents being the most frequent type followed by harm to object and aggression in girls and harm to people and aggression in boys. Boys tell the fewest stories with friendly themes at this age, whereas the girls tell some stories with this theme and some dealing with animals. Girls view their mothers as disapproving, punishing, and hurting, whereas the boys portray them as providing and protecting. Boys do not mention fathers, and girls mention them as being friendly and caring. Leading characters in girls' stories are girls and mothers; in boys' stories they are boys. Girls protect themselves by having harm occur either to objects (32%) or to animals (20%). At 4 the girls tell their most violent stories, fantasy predominates, and the scene is further

from home than in the past, though still closer to home than a 4-year-old boy's story. Boys' stories are also mainly fantasy and much shorter in length than the girls' stories, as they always are. (5) Four-and-one-half is a low point for violence in girls' stories (64%), although the boys' are still high (84%). Girls tell of people and animals being eaten, killed or dying, whereas boys tell of things smashed and pushed and people and animals killed, eaten or dead. Food and eating themes are common in all (48%, girls; 32%, boys). This is a low point for friendly themes in girls (32%) and a high point for them in boys (32%). Girls see mothers as friendly or disapproving-punishing (20% each), and boys see her as nurturing (20%) or a passive-victim (29%). Leading characters in boys' stories are boys, while girls continue to select girls and mothers. Girls at this age protect themselves by having harm occur to animals or by mentioning violence which does not occur. Boys protect themselves by mentioning illness or death which reverses itself, by mentioning violence which does not occur, and by having harm come to animals. Girls' stories are either short and violent with harm which doesn't quite occur or long stories emphasizing friendliness and cooperation. Stories occur in unfamiliar and distant places and are predominantly fantasy. Boys' stories are mainly violent with biting and death most frequently mentioned; fantasy predominates and story occurs in a strange place. (6) Five-year-olds usually tell stories they have already heard, with violence a predominant theme (70%, girls; 65%, boys). Kind and friendly themes are frequent with girls (50%) and low with boys (25%); food and eating are also common (40%, girls; 60%, boys). Girls display no unity in their view of mothers, whereas the boys are evenly split between companioning and protecting mothers. Most girls describe their fathers as companions; boys describe fathers as friendly or a passive-victim (35% each). Leading characters in girls' stories are girls, mothers, and boys, while boys choose boys for this role. Girls protect themselves by having harm occur to siblings or boys or by not having violence occur, whereas boys protect themselves by having objects or animals harmed or others punished for their wrongs. Overall the girls stories change suddenly from age 4 1/2. Now they are quite feminine and stress babies, marriage, nice clothes, or having their own bathroom. Stories occur closer to home, and realism and fantasy are about equal. Boys' stories are completely different from the girls' at this age. They are much more aggressive than the girls (30 to 55%) and do not have many friendly or masculine themes. As with the girls, the stories are closer to home than they have been in the past year, but fantasy is still predominant and the stories are shorter than they were at age 4 1/2. (7) A comparison of these stories with an earlier study on children in the same schools finds overall agreement between the results on all measures.

Conclusions: There are marked age and sex differences in the stories told by subjects which necessitate analysis of data along these dimensions.

6.2.1.3 McDonald, M. Helping children to understand death. Journal of Nursery Education, 1963, 19, 19-25.

Purpose: The study explores the feelings of the children in a preschool class after one of the children's mother died during the school year. Theoretically, the author aligns herself with those who believe children should be told about a death that affects their life.
Method: Subjects are 13 preschoolers, about age 4, and their mothers and nursery school teachers. One of the children's mother died in the afternoon of a school day The teachers immediately called the mother of each of the other children in the class and emphasized two points: (1) The children cannot be shielded from the death, and the fact must be discussed with them without delay and as simply and truthfully as possible. (2) "In response to hearing the facts, every child could be expected to experience unpleasant feelings of anxiety and sadness. These facts should be accepted as normal and appropriate, and the children should not be shielded from them any more than from the realistic facts about death."
Findings: Individual Reactions--All children responded to the news by asking, "Who will take care of Wendy (deceased's child) now?" (thus indicating the children accepted the difficult news and were able to consider its implications for Wendy). Group I: Three children who also asked, "Will my mother die too?" (thus showing a serious interest in facts about death) were able to express verbally their anxiety about whether their mothers would die. "Because of this thinking about themselves, they experienced genuine feelings of sadness." One girl had a parent help her write Wendy a sympathy note. None of them denied the death occurred. Group II: Four children who were only able to ask the first question could think about death as long as it was "isolated from themselves," so they "escape" experiencing to any extent appropriate anxiety or sadness in connection with it. "At one time or another they would deny Wendy's mother had died and refer to her as alive." The teachers and counsellors tried to help these children "give up their attitude of denial about the death," but it was hard to do since these children's Parents used the same mechanism to escape painful events in their lives, and the children had done it before in their own lives; e.g., to forget about a father who had deserted his child, about a recent operation, and about an impending move to a strange city. Group III: Three children who tried hard not to let concept of death touch their personal lives were unsuccessful, whereas Group II was successful. They never asked if their mother would die or influence their lives, but all were very anxious about death and

experienced marked "symptomatic reactions" to the news. Two said their mothers would never die, but experienced extreme anxiety whenever leaving mother to go to nursery school. Another returned to heavy thumb-sucking and clung desperately to an old toy. The children showed a lowering of tolerance for frustration and uncontrollable aggressive behavior. One child talked constantly about skeletons in closets. Group IV: Three children had acute special problems before the death that worsened with this news. Response groups were formed by the author around the subjects' natural responses.

Total Group Reactions: All children became more concerned about leaving their mothers to enter school and ran to meet them most eagerly after school. Children were very apprehensive about a teacher's absence. After several weeks, the children started to play a new game, "playing dead," to refer more spontaneously to dead and alive, thus indicating that the initial shock and taboo about death was lifting. For a short time children confused a child's moving to another city with death.

Conclusions: Clinical confirmation of the bad effects of shielding a child from death and a concrete realistic appraisal of it support the author's belief that young children should be told about it as it occurs. If not, they may start limiting their curiosity to events that do not cause painful emotional responses.

6.2.1.4 Morland, K.J. Racial acceptance and preference of nursery school children in a southern city. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 1962, 8, 271-280.

Problem: To study children from a highly segregated environment to see whether they would accept members of the other race as playmates, whether they had a preference for playmates of one race or another, and whether these preferences varied with age, race, racial recognition ability, and social status.
Subjects: 407 children (126 Negro, 281 whites); ages 3 to 6; subjects were drawn from six nursery schools: one Negro school and five white schools in Virginia. Both groups contained children from upper and lower economic status (the Warner scale for rating occupations and the area of residence of the family were used to classify socioeconomic level).
Method: Each subject was shown four pictures: (a) four white children, two boys and two girls, sitting at a table looking at picture books; (b) four Negro children, two boys and two girls, sitting and looking at picture books; (c) a Negro boy and five white boys and girls at a table eating; (d) a Negro girl and a white girl playing with five Negro boys and girls in the background. Each subject was asked if he would like to play with the children in the picture. No assessment of children's ability to recognize race was made.

Results: (1) The majority of both groups of children were willing to accept the other; however, the number of Negro subjects willing to accept white subjects as playmates was significantly greater. (2) A significantly greater number of lower status white subjects were more willing to accept Negroes as playmates than higher status white subjects. (3) An inverse relationship existed between age of white subjects and acceptance of Negroes (older subjects were less accepting but even at age 5 more than 2/3 expressed acceptance of the Negroes). (4) A significant majority of both groups expressed a preference for the white children in the pictures; however, this preference decreased for Negro subjects with increasing age (but not significantly).

6.2.2 ENVIRONMENTAL

6.2.2.1 Carlsmith, L. Effect of early father absence on scholastic aptitude. Harvard Educational Review, 1964, 34, 1-22.

Purpose: To determine if there are lasting measurable effects due to the absence of the father at an early age and to see if the age of the child during the father's absence is an important variable in determining the effect of his absence.
Subjects: 881 Harvard freshmen in the class of 1963--all boys; 307 Harvard freshmen in the class of 1964--all boys; 137 high school boys and 135 high school girls--all class of 1961; all subjects are American born and from intact families where the parents always lived together and with the child and still are; all subjects were born between 1941 and 1945; approximately one-third of the subjects were separated from their fathers for varying lengths of time during World War II when the latter were on duty overseas.
Procedure: (1) The College Entrance Examination Board Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) scores (math and verbal) were obtained for all subjects from their school records. (2) A math-verbal score (M-V) was computed for each subject from his SAT scores in each area. It is this measure (M-V) that is used for comparisons between groups, so the absolute level of ability between individuals is not considered. (3) College subjects and the parents of the high school subjects were asked if the subject's father was overseas, the length of absence, and the dates it occurred.
Methods: (1) From the subjects in the Harvard class of 1964, 20 matched pairs were selected--matched on father's occupation, education, marital status, and subject's previous educational experience, ordinal position, mother's age, and adults in home during war years. These groups only differed in the number of years father was overseas; one group always had their fathers home and one group had fathers who were away for at least 2 years during the child's first 30 months of life. (2) A comparison was made between nine

matched pairs of doctor's sons, all Harvard '64, with one group experiencing father absence and one group not. (3) The interaction of length of absence and age of subject when it occurred is analyzed for its effect upon M-V score. This was done with all subjects' data. (4) Subjects in Harvard '63 were studied without data about the age of subject when father was absent; only the length of absence and M-V score were available.

Findings: (1) A regression analysis of the interaction of length of father's absence and age of subject when it occurred reveals that each variable is significantly ($p<.05$) related to the M-V score. "Because of the high correlation ($r = -.59$) between length of absence and age at absence, neither variable added significantly to the prediction of M-V score when the other had already been taken into account," and this is true for all groups of male subjects where the information is available. (2) A regression analysis of the interaction of length of absence and subject's age at absence applied to the sample of high school boys revealed that if the father left when the subject was 0 to 12 months old and was gone for 1 to 5 years, the relative superiority of math to verbal scores decreases sharply. However, if the father left when the child was older and was gone for only 3 to 12 months, the subject's math score increases relative to his verbal score. The difference between these two groups using an analysis of variance is significant beyond the $p<.001$ level. In all cases this is due to the interaction of length of father's absence and son's age during this event. (3) The effect of father absence on math and verbal aptitude among high school girls, class of 1961, appears to be the same as that seen in boys; no significant levels were given. (4) An analysis of the data for the Harvard class of 1963 indicates that father absence is related to relatively lower math scores. No significant test was applied to this group because of incomplete information. (5) The comparisons between the 20 matched pairs of Harvard '64 students and between the nine pairs of doctor's sons are not analyzed statistically, although they look significant and show subjects with absent fathers having higher verbal than math scores.

Conclusions: The relationship between length of father's absence and age of child when it occurs and math and verbal aptitude scores in college is viewed as evidence for any general theory of identification that hypothesizes that parental identification influences cognitive development. Among American college students, boys usually have higher math than verbal scores while the reverse is true for women students. The decrease in this differential among the male subjects suggests that the lack of a masculine model in the home during these early years affected later cognitive development and encouraged some cross-sexed identification between the male child and his mother. The relatively higher verbal aptitude among girl subjects is viewed as a result of the absence of a male model with whom to identify.

Research indicates that women good in math have a masculine identification (Milton. The effects of sex-role identification upon problem solving. Journal of Abnormal Social Psychology, 1957, 57, 208-212; Plank, E. The Psychoanalytic Study of The Child, 1954, 9.

6.2.2.2 McCandless, B., and Hoyt, J.M. Sex, ethnicity, and play preferences of preschool children. Journal of Abnormal Social Psychology, 1961, 62, 683-685.

Problem: The authors hypothesized that "in a situation where social mixing of the races is common, preschool children show little tendency toward ethnic cleavage." Choice of play companions in a free play situation was assumed to be an interaction, meaningful to the child, in which this hypothesis could be tested.
Subjects: 33 children of oriental ethnic origin (17 boys, 16 girls), 26 Caucasian children (11 boys, 15 girls). The children all attended the University of Hawaii preschool and all had been in the preschool for at least 6 months except one. The age range of the subjects was from 3 years, 6 months to 5 years, 3 months, with a mean age of 4 years, 5 months.
Method: The children were observed in free play situations. For free play they were broken up into three groups, each group having equal ethnic and sex compositions. The time sampling method was used. Observations consisted of fifteen 5-minute observations for each child, during which time the duration and type of his interactions with other children were recorded. A tabulation was made of the total time each child spent with every other child and the total time was computed for interactions with children in each of the two ethnic groups. A discrepancy score was calculated for both ethnic and sex choices of each child. (If a group is made up of 11 haole and 10 nonhaole children, the chance expectancy for a given haole child to interact with each ethnic group is 50 percent. If the haole child had an hour of free play and he spent 45 minutes playing with other haole children the discrepancy score would be +15.) Chi-square analysis and Yates correlations were used. Observer reliability was .92.
Results: (1) Disregarding ethnic group, boys overchose boys and girls overchose girls as play companions ($p<.01$). (2) Disregarding sex, haoles played significantly more with haoles, and nonhaoles played significantly more with non-haoles. (3) Sex cleavage was significantly more extreme for boys than for girls. (4) Ethnic cleavage did not differ significantly for haoles versus nonhaoles nor did boys differ from girls in this respect. The authors did not predict this split by ethnicity, and they account for it through "comfort" rather than through prejudice; i.e., "perhaps subtly different play experiences and interests may operate to make the haole youngster feel more comfortable

with other haoles (he has more in common with them). Similar factors may operate for the nonhaoles."

6.2.2.3 Stevenson, H.W., and Stewart, E. A developmental study of racial awareness in young children. Child Development, 1958, 29, 399-409.

Purpose: To investigate the responses of Negro and white children, ages 3 to 7, on a variety of tests concerned with racial awareness and attitudes.
Subjects: 225 children enrolled in private nursery school and elementary schools in Austin, Texas (population 165,000 white, 25,000 Negro); 25 white subjects of each chronological age; number of Negro subjects varied (23, 13, 22. 17, 20); total groups made up of 100 Negro children, 125 white; groups were approximately evenly divided in sex; white subjects were of a higher socioeconomic status based on parental occupation; schools were not integrated; subjects resided in areas of city where play and frequent contact with children of other race were impossible.
Method: Four tests were constructed for this study in order to investigate the children's ability to discriminate the physical differences between Negro and white and their racial preferences and attitudes. (1) Discrimination test--20 cards, 12 related to race, 8 fill-ins, picture of three children (e.g., Negro boy, Negro girl, white girl). "Show me the one that is different." (2) Doll assembly--four dolls, Negro girl, Negro boy, white girl, white boy; girls dressed exactly alike, boys dressed exactly alike; dolls presented disassembled (12 pieces); child was asked to assemble. (3) Dolls--four small dolls; child was asked, "Which one looks like you? Which two children would you prefer to play with?" (4) Incomplete stories--seven stories which depict play situations; race of main figure is ambiguous, others depicted in picture are both Negro and white; child was asked question which would indicate race of central figure.
Procedure: Each child was tested individually; experimentors administering the tests were of the same race as child.
Results: Discrimination and doll assembly tests were too difficult for 3-year-olds. (1) Discrimination test--no consistent differences among choices made by Negro or white between race or sex; at all age levels the average number of choices by sex were greater than those by race; there was a significant increase in the number of subjects at each age making consistent sex responses; there was a significant difference between the proportion of subjects making sex responses with age ($p<.01$); Negro and white subjects did not differ significantly in frequency of race responses, but a greater number of white subjects did make consistent sex responses ($p<.01$). (2) Doll assembly--at all ages except age 4, the proportion of white subjects assembling the dolls correctly by races was greater than the proportion of Negro subjects. (3) Dolls--in choosing the doll that

"looks like me" the proportion of own race choices was greater by white subjects than by Negro subjects; the difference between the total own race choices in the two groups is highly significant ($p<.001$). When selecting the two that they would most like to play with, white subjects show a consistent increase in proportion of own race choices with increasing age, whereas Negro subjects show a consistent decrease except at age 7. The overall proportion of own race choices was .20 for Negro subjects and .47 for white subjects; the difference was highly significant ($p<.001$). (4) Incomplete stories--for white subjects the proportion of own race choices at all ages was relatively low and did not increase with age. A higher proportion of Negro subjects made own race choices, and it increased slightly with increasing age; difference between total number of own race choices was highly significant ($p<.001$). The author concluded that "the items related to attitudes toward self and toward race revealed a higher frequency of negative attitudes among Negroes. A greater frequency of own race rejection by Negroes is seen in the lower proportion of Negroes choosing Negro playmates, companions to go home with, guests for a birthday party, and as looking most like themselves. Negro subjects place Negro children in negative position in the incomplete stories more frequently than white subjects placed white children in such positions."

6.3
EGO FUNCTIONING

6.3.1 NORMATIVE

6.3.1.1 Glueck, E.T. Identification of potential delinquents at 2-3 years of age. International Journal of Social Psychiatry, 1966, 13, 5-16.

Purpose: "To construct a device to identify potential delinquents still earlier in the life span." The Gluecks now have a device that is successful in predicting delinquency in boys by analyzing their lives along five dimensions when they enter school at about age 5 1/2 to 6. Delinquency is defined as "repeated acts of a kind which when committed by persons beyond the statutory juvenile court age of sixteen are punishable as crimes (either felonies or misdemeanors)--except for a few instances of persistent stubborness, truancy, running away, associating with immoral persons and the like." New Ideas and Criticisms: The author has no criticism for existing work done in this area, but rather seeks to make her device valid for work with younger subjects. She thinks this is possible because some of the determining characteristics should be present in the individual and the environment at an earlier age in a large number of cases. The cluster of factors "that appear to comprise an appropriate device to identify potential delinquents in very early childhood" is: (1) pathology of parents--history of criminalism, alcoholism, emotional disturbance, severe mental retardation, etc; (2) attachment of parents to child--each parent separately rated on acceptance-rejection of child; (3) extreme restlessness in childhood; (4) nonsubmissiveness of child to parental authority; and (5) destructiveness of child. Predictions: The author applies the new instrument to the data at hand on the male subjects (428 delinquents and 429 nondelinquents) of Unraveling Juvenile Delinquency who were studied in depth when their average age was 14:7 years and the range was 7-17 years. The subjects were matched on age, intelligence, national (ethnic-racial) origin, and residence in an underprivileged neighborhood. Applied to the 429 delinquents, the new table places 59.4 percent in the same category as the 5 1/2- to 6-year-old test does. This test was validated in a 10-year longitudinal study conducted by the New York City Youth Board in 1963. One-third of the actual delinquents said to have a low chance of delinquency by the 5 1/2- to 6-year-test are placed correctly by the new instrument, and only 11 delinquents are put in a low probability category by the new test. Of the delinquents described by the earlier test as having an even chance of delinquency, 53.1 percent are correctly placed by the new test in the high

delinquency category and only 14.3 percent are erroneously placed by the new test. Applying the 2- to 3-year-old criteria to the 428 nondelinquent subjects of the Unraveling study who have also been given the 5 1/2- to 6-year-old test, one finds that both tests place 62.1 percent of the subjects in the same categories. "The earlier-age test accomplishes a more accurate placement of 49 cases" and erroneously places 12 cases.

6.3.1.2 Glueck, E.T. A more discriminative instrument for the identification of potential delinquents at school entrance. Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology and Political Science, 1966, 57, 27-30.

Purpose: To improve upon the author's previous formulations of traits predictive of delinquency in 5 1/2- to 6-year-olds.
Criticism: Delinquency is defined as "repeated acts of a kind which when committed by persons beyond the statutory juvenile court age of sixteen are punishable as crimes (either felonies or misdemeanors)--except for a few instances of persistent stubborness, truancy, running away, associating with immoral persons and the like." Earlier formulations did not include material and facts gathered from studying 2- and 3-year-olds.
New Ideas: The author tested the new five-factor theory on data gathered from the 1,000 Boston males; 500 delinquents and 500 nondelinquents (matched for age, general intelligence, national (ethno-racial) origin, and residence in an underprivileged neighborhood) who were studied in depth and the subjects of Unraveling Juvenile Delinquency. At the time of the study, the subjects' ages ranged from 7 to 17 years with a mean of 14:7 years. In addition to the three social factors of amount of supervision by the mother, discipline by the mother, and family cohesiveness which have been found to successfully predict delinquency when applied to grade school boys, the author now adds two traits: nonsubmissiveness to authority and destructiveness. These characteristics are observable in 2- to 3-year-old children and have been found to identify potential delinquents when applied to subjects at this age. Therefore "this also reflects a greater discriminative capacity for identifying potential delinquents at 5 1/2 to 6 years.
Predictions: Applying the new five-factor criteria to these subjects, the author finds it places in their right category 20 percent of the subjects in the ambiguous table by the old three-factor criteria. It also correctly identifies 82.3 percent of the total sample, whereas the old test only placed 72.5 percent correctly. The new test also correctly places 65.4 percent more subjects in the middle predictive category and only 9 percent are erroneously placed as having a low significance.

6.3.1.3 Von Hug-Hellmuth, H., translated by Kris, O.A. The child's conception of death. Psychoanalytic Quarterly, 1965, 34, 499-516.

Purpose: The paper presents a summary of the psychoanalytic interpretation of children's ideas about death. Excerpts were used from the life of a boy starting at age 3 1/2, and an analysis of his views is made and correlated with psychoanalytic theory, in general, but all strictly Freudian.
Criticisms: The author makes no criticisms, and the translator commends the author for being a non-Freudian and writing a book whose case history adheres to the Freudian notions of children's concept of death.
Theoretical Contributions: Observations of the author's that support psychoanalytic theory are that (a) children at first conceive of death as a temporary separation that is acquired in part from fairy tales (working under this misunderstanding of death, children frequently wish dead someone from whom they would temporarily like to escape; e.g., a punitive parent or rival sibling--found in 3- to 5-year-olds); (b) being dead also means experiencing a slight "decrease in the life functions," so one may wish someone dead so they can't run so fast in order to be separated from them for a while--found in child up to 8- or 10-years-old; (c) contradictions in adults' statements about death and dying "often lead children to their first doubts of the truthfulness of assertion made by grownups"--found in children until 8- or 10-years-old; (d) being dead, how dead, when and where are always considered to be in man's control by the child; (e) when death does occur to someone important in the child's life, he discovers it is a welcome cause for general attention and sympathy (with age, he is taught certain conventional forms for expressing emotion and believes he must force himself to do so at a death even though these feelings are foreign to him naturally); (f) "from a certain age level on (about age 6) children take it for granted that old people die" (this is linked to the birth of babies, and children believe that old people become angels for a while and are then back again as babies but there is no one-to-one relationship between a certain aged person becoming a specific baby; however, it is assumed that only old people die); and (g) death only becomes horrifying with age and in puberty children rebel against this feeling instead of "Bowing before its majesty."
Contributions of new theory: No new theory was proposed.